



Photocatalytic O₂ oxidation of CH₄ to CH₃OH on AuFe-ZnO bifunctional catalyst

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ABSTRACT

Selective oxidation of CH₄ by O₂ to produce CH₃OH under mild reaction conditions is of importance but remains a significant challenge. Herein, we report a novel nanocomposite of highly dispersed Au and Fe species on ZnO (AuFe-ZnO). During photocatalytic O₂ oxidation of CH₄ to CH₃OH, this AuFe-ZnO acts as a bifunctional catalyst to drive one-pot cascade reactions (O₂ + H₂O → H₂O₂ and CH₄ + H₂O₂ → CH₃OH + H₂O). The ZnO semiconductor generates electrons under irradiation to produce H₂O₂ from O₂, in which the photo-induced holes could activate CH₄ to form •CH₃. The Au served as a co-catalyst for activating CH₄, while the Fe²⁺ species catalyzed Fenton-like reactions by activating H₂O₂ to form •OH radicals, followed by reacting with •CH₃ to produce CH₃OH. The synergetic effects of Au, Fe, and ZnO result in a high CH₃OH yield of 1365 μmol·g⁻¹·h⁻¹ with high CH₃OH selectivity of up to 90.7%.

1. Introduction

CH₄ has been widely used as fossil energy as the principal constituent of natural gas [1–3]. However, CH₄ combustion releases a great number of CO₂. Both CO₂ and CH₄ are strong green-house effecting gases [4,5]. With the rapid development of non-fossil energy, instead of combustion, the CH₄ conversion into valuable chemical products like CH₃OH becomes more and more important [6–8]. However, most CH₄ conversion reactions require harsh conditions due to the stable molecule structure, leading to high energy consumption and low selectivity toward target products as well as difficult operation [9–12]. The mature industrial route is an energy-intensive two-stage process involving the manufacture of synthesis gas through steam or dry reforming and subsequent Fischer-Tropsch synthesis [9,12–14]. Those reactions usually perform at 700–800 °C, which inevitably causes the deactivation of catalysts and high energy consumption. Recently, selective oxidation of CH₄ under mild conditions has caused increasing attention owing to the energy-saving, easy operation, and environmental friendship [15–21]. For example, Hutchings et al. reported that the Au-Pd catalyst exhibited

high selectivity to CH₃OH during CH₄ oxidation by H₂O₂ at 50 °C [9]. But, their practical applications are still quite limited by the use of costly oxidants or corrosive reaction media, e.g., selenic acid [22], oleum [23], and H₂O₂ [24,25].

Photocatalytic selective O₂ oxidation of CH₄ represents a promising way for CH₄ conversion owing to the mild reaction conditions, low price of O₂, environmental-friendly and energy-saving process [17–21]. Typical semiconductors, including WO₃ [10,19,26], TiO₂ [17,27–29], ZnO [20,30–32], C₃N₄ [33], and BiOCl [34] have been selected as potential candidates to drive photocatalytic CH₄ conversion. For instance, noble metal modified-ZnO photocatalysts displayed high activity in water-medium photocatalytic O₂ oxidation of CH₄ [31]. The holes generated from light-exciting semiconductors play the dominant role in breaking the C-H bond of CH₄ to form •CH₃ radicals, followed by reacting with •OH to produce CH₃OH. However, the photoelectrons may react with O₂ to generate O₂•⁻ radicals, which can react directly with •CH₃ and/or the as-produced CH₃OH to produce CH₃OOH, CO, and CO₂ [33], leading to the poor selectivity to CH₃OH (< 30%). Both the experimental results and theoretical prediction demonstrated that the

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H₂O₂-assistant photocatalytic CH₄ oxidation could enhance the selectivity to CH₃OH owing to the formation of more •OH radicals [18,21]. For example, the photocatalytic H₂O₂ oxidation of CH₄ on FeO_x/TiO₂ in an aqueous solution exhibited nearly 90% CH₃OH selectivity under ambient conditions [21]. Wang et al. also reported a Fenton-like reaction for H₂O₂ oxidation of CH₄ with high selectivity to CH₃OH on the FeOOH/Li_{0.1}WO₃ [35]. However, all those reactions need the addition of H₂O₂ oxidant, leading to the enhanced cost. Meanwhile, those reactions also displayed low activity due to the difficult activation of H₂O₂ into •OH radicals, corresponding to the low CH₃OH selectivity and yield.

Herein, we reported a novel bifunctional AuFe-ZnO catalyst comprised of Au nanoparticles and Fe²⁺/Fe³⁺ species well dispersed on the ZnO. The Au acted as both the electron transfer conductor and the co-catalyst to promote photocatalytic production of H₂O₂ from O₂ under Xe lamp irradiation, together with the activation of CH₄ into •CH₃. While, the Fe²⁺ species activated H₂O₂ into •OH, followed by reacting with •CH₃ to form the target product CH₃OH. The as-resulted Fe³⁺ could be reduced by photoelectrons, leading to the cycling Fenton-like reactions. The synergetic effects of the AuFe-ZnO catalyst during one-pot cascade photocatalytic reactions and Fenton-like reactions greatly enhanced the efficiency during photocatalytic O₂ oxidation of CH₄ at 20°C, corresponding to the CH₃OH yield of 1365 μmol·g⁻¹·h⁻¹ with the CH₃OH selectivity up to 90.7%.

2. Experimental

2.1. Catalyst preparation

2.1.1. Preparation of Au-ZnO

The Au-ZnO photocatalyst was prepared by a modified deposition-precipitation method. Firstly, 500 mg ZnO was dispersed in 50 mL HAuCl₄ aqueous solution containing the desired amount of Au at pH = 9 adjusted with 0.20 M NaOH. The mixture was vigorously stirred for 2 h at 80°C. After being cooled to 25°C, the solid was separated by centrifugation and thoroughly washed with water. After being dried at 80°C for 12 h, it was heated at a ramping rate of 5 °C/min to 200°C and kept at this temperature for 2 h. The as-prepared sample was denoted as Au_x-ZnO, where x represents the Au loading in weight percentage (wt%).

2.1.2. Preparation of Fe-ZnO

A highly reproducible impregnation method was used to prepare modified ZnO photocatalysts. Briefly, a certain amount of FeCl₂ was dissolved in 50 mL of deionized water containing 500 mg ZnO. The mixture was vigorously stirred for 2 h at 80°C. After being cooled to 25°C, the solid was separated by centrifugation and thoroughly washed with water. After being dried at 80°C for 12 h, it was heated at a ramping rate of 5°C·min⁻¹ to 200°C and kept at this temperature for 2 h. The as-received sample was denoted as Fe_y-ZnO, where y refers to the Fe loading in weight percent (wt%).

2.1.3. Preparation of AuFe-ZnO

The AuFe-ZnO photocatalyst was prepared by the same method for preparing Au-ZnO except for replacing ZnO with Fe-ZnO. The as-obtained photocatalyst was denoted as Au_xFe_y-ZnO, where x and y refer to the weight percentage (wt%) of Au and Fe loadings, respectively. For comparison, the Au_{1.0}Fe_{0.33}-ZnO was also calcined at 400°C for 2 h and 12 h, respectively.

2.2. Characterization

The morphologies were characterized by transmission electron microscope (TEM, JEM-2010, Japan). The crystalline structure was analyzed by X-ray diffraction pattern (XRD) with Cu Kα radiation (Bruker advance D8, Germany), and the data was recorded at a scan rate of 5 min⁻¹. The N₂ adsorption-desorption isotherms were obtained at 77

K using a Micromeritics ASAP 2010 instrument, based on which the specific surface area (S_{BET}) and pore volume (V_p) were calculated by applying Brunauer-Emmett-Teller (BET) and Barrett-Joyner-Halenda (BJH) models. The chemical state for surface elements was characterized by X-Ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) on an ESCLAB250 spectrometer, using a monochromatic Al Kα radiation source. All the binding energies (BEs) were calibrated using the C1s peak at 284.8 eV as a reference. Electron paramagnetic resonance (EPR) spectroscopy measurement was performed on a Bruker ESP A300 spectrometer, using 5, 5-dimethyl-1-pyrroline-N-oxide (DMPO) to monitor hydroxyl radicals. The light absorbance was detected on the ultraviolet-visible diffuse reflectance spectroscopy (UV-vis DRS, Shimadzu UV-2450) with high-purity BaSO₄ as a standard reagent for baseline calibration. According to the UV-vis diagram, the corresponding band gap energy is calculated by the Kubelka-Munk equation:

$$\alpha h\nu = A(h\nu - E_g)^n$$

Where A, E_g, v, h, and α represent the constant, band gap, optical frequency, Planck constant, and absorption coefficient, respectively. n is equal to 1/2 or 2 corresponding to the indirect band gap or direct band gap of the semiconductor. All the photoelectron-chemical performance tests were carried out in Shanghai Chenchua CHI760E electrochemical workstation using a three-electrode system, using FTO glass coated with the photocatalyst as the working electrode, platinum plate as the counter electrode, Ag/AgCl electrode as the reference electrode, and 0.50 M Na₂SO₄ solution as electrolyte. The photoelectron-hole recombination was analyzed on a fluorometer (PL, Cony Eclipse, Varian, USA) with an excitation wavelength of 348 nm. The surface adsorption of intermediates during the reaction process was observed through the in situ Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy (FT-IR) on a Nicolet iS10 spectrometer (Thermo Scientific) equipped with an in situ reaction chamber.

2.3. Activity test

The photocatalytic reactions were conducted in a 100 mL autoclave equipped with a quartz window to allow light irradiation (See Scheme S1 in Supporting Information). Typically, 40 mg photocatalyst was dispersed in 20 mL water by ultrasonication for 2 min. Then, the mixture was added to the glass liner in the autoclave. After purging with O₂ several times to exhaust air, the reactor was filled with 2 bar O₂ and 18 bar CH₄. The photocatalytic reaction was then started by a 300 W Xe lamp irradiation at 20°C under 600 rpm stirring. After the reaction, the mixture was cooled down to 10°C. The gas products (CH₄, C₂H₆, C₂H₄, C₂H₂, H₂, CO, CO₂) were analyzed by gas chromatography (GC 7890B, Agilent, after referred to as GC1) equipped with flame ionization detector (FID) fixed with a HP-PLOT/Q column (30 m × 0.5 mm) and a thermal conductivity detector (TCD) connected to TDX-01 column (1 m × 1/8). The liquid products (CH₃OH, CH₃CH₂OH, CH₃COOH, HCOOH, CH₃CH₂OH, CH₃COCH₃, HCHO, etc.) were collected by filtration, followed by analyzing with a chromatography (GC 7890B, Agilent, after referred to as GC2) equipped with flame ionization detectors (FID) fixed a HP-FFAT column (50 m × 0.2 mm) and high-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC, Agilent) equipped with an ultraviolet-visible detector (UVD) set with a Hi-Plex H column (7.7 × 300 mm) as well as acetylacetone color-developing method. The CH₃OOH was analyzed by the ¹H nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) spectroscopy immediately after the reaction to avoid its decomposition (Fig. S1).

The CH₃OH yield was calculated according to the following equation:

$$CH_3OH_{Yield}(\mu mol \cdot g^{-1} \cdot h^{-1}) = n_{CH_3OH} / (m_{catalyst} \cdot t)$$

Where n_{CH₃OH} represents the micromoles of CH₃OH produced during the CH₄ oxidation reaction, while m_{catalyst} and t refer to the catalyst mass (g) and the reaction time (h), respectively. The yields of other products were

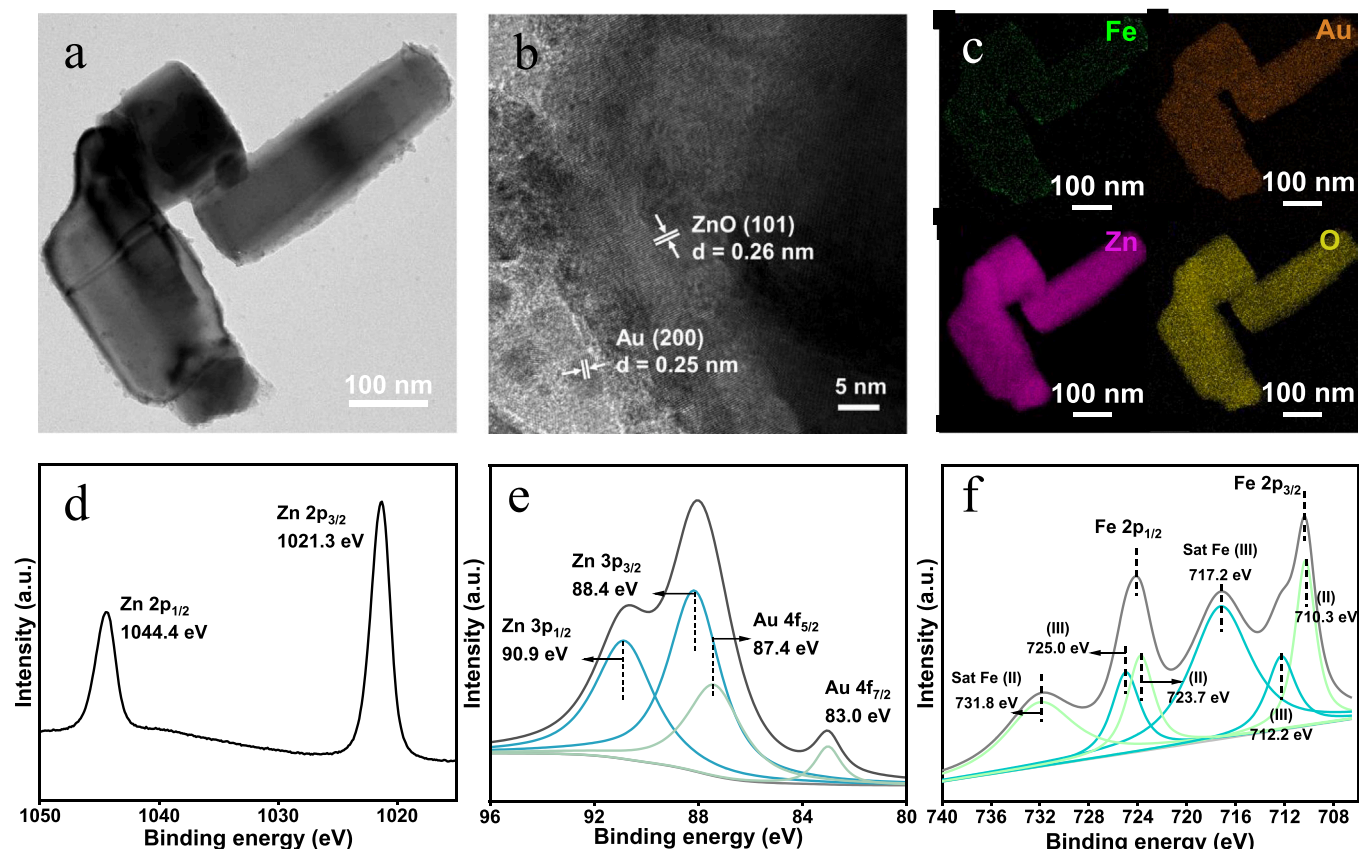


Fig. 1. (a) TEM and (b) HR-TEM images, as well as (c) element mappings of $\text{Au}_{1.0}\text{Fe}_{0.33}\text{-ZnO}$. XPS spectra at (d) Zn 2p, (e) Au 4f, (f) Fe 2p levels in $\text{Au}_{1.0}\text{Fe}_{0.33}\text{-ZnO}$.

calculated in similar equations.

The CH_3OH selectivity was calculated according to the following equation:

$$\text{CH}_3\text{OHSelectivity}(\%) = \frac{n_{\text{CH}_3\text{OH}}}{(n_{\text{CH}_3\text{OH}} + n_{\text{CH}_3\text{OOH}} + n_{\text{HCHO}} + n_{\text{HCOOH}} + n_{\text{CO}_2} + n_{\text{CO}})} \times 100\%$$

where $n_{\text{CH}_3\text{OH}}$, $n_{\text{CH}_3\text{OOH}}$, n_{HCHO} , n_{HCOOH} , n_{CO_2} , n_{CO} represent the micromoles of CH_3OH , CH_3OOH , HCHO , HCOOH , CO_2 and CO produced during CH_4 oxidation reaction.

In the recycling test, the $\text{Au}_{1.0}\text{Fe}_{0.33}\text{-ZnO}$ was separated after each reaction, followed by washing and drying at 90°C for 2 h to remove all adsorbed organic pollutants and solvent. Then, the next cycle of photocatalytic reaction was performed under the same reaction conditions.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Structural characteristics

The actual Au- and Fe-contents were determined by ICP (see Table S1). As shown in Fig. 1a, the TEM image displayed nanosized polygons of the $\text{Au}_{1.0}\text{Fe}_{0.33}\text{-ZnO}$, almost the same as those of ZnO , $\text{Au}_{1.0}\text{-ZnO}$, $\text{Fe}_{0.33}\text{-ZnO}$ (see Fig. S2). The enlarged TEM images and the corresponding particle size distribution curves (Fig. S3) demonstrated the Au in the $\text{Au}_{1.0}\text{Fe}_{0.33}\text{-ZnO}$ was present in nanoparticles with the average size around 4.7 nm and the increase in either the calcination temperature or the calcination time caused significant increase in Au nanoparticle size. Meanwhile, the XRD patterns (Fig. S4) revealed that all the $\text{Au}_{1.0}\text{Fe}_{0.33}\text{-ZnO}$, $\text{Au}_{1.0}\text{-ZnO}$, and $\text{Fe}_{0.33}\text{-ZnO}$ exhibited only the same diffractive peaks as observed in pure ZnO , corresponding to the hexagonal wurtzite structure of ZnO (PDF#36–1451). No significant diffractive peaks characteristic of Au and Fe were observed owing to their high dispersion and low contents. In addition, all the ZnO , $\text{Au}_{1.0}\text{Fe}_{0.33}\text{-ZnO}$, $\text{Au}_{1.0}\text{-ZnO}$, and $\text{Fe}_{0.33}\text{-ZnO}$ exhibited similar II-type N_2 adsorption-desorption isotherms (see Fig. S5), together with the similar specific surface area (S_{BET}), pore diameter (D_p) and pore volume (V_p) calculated based on the BJH and BET methods (see Table S2). After Fe-doping, the S_{BET} slightly increased, while both the D_p and the V_p slightly decreased, possibly due to the presence of a new porous structure constructed by Fe species. Those results demonstrated that the deposition of Au and Fe and Au/Fe onto ZnO had little influence on the original morphology, crystalline structure, and textural parameters. The HRTEM image of $\text{Au}_{1.0}\text{Fe}_{0.33}\text{-ZnO}$ (Fig. 1b) clearly showed the lattice spacing of 0.25 nm and 0.26 nm, which corresponds to the (200) facet of Au and the (101) facet of ZnO , respectively. However, no significant Fe species were observed, probably due to the low content and the high dispersion. The Elemental Mappings (EDS) in Fig. 1c displayed the uniform distribution of Au and Fe onto the ZnO support. The XPS spectra revealed that all the Zn species in the $\text{Au}_{1.0}\text{Fe}_{0.33}\text{-ZnO}$ were present in Zn^{2+} state, corresponding to two peaks with the binding energies of 1044.4 and 1021.3 eV at $2p_{1/2}$ and $2p_{3/2}$ levels respectively and 90.9 and 88.4 eV at $3p_{1/2}$ and $3p_{3/2}$ levels, respectively (Fig. 1d). All the Au species were present in the metallic state, corresponding to the binding energy of 87.4 and 83.0 eV at $4f_{5/2}$ and $4f_{7/2}$ levels, respectively (Fig. 1e). The Fe species were present in both the Fe^{2+} and Fe^{3+} states (Fig. 1f). The peaks with binding energies of 712.2 and 725.0 eV, together with a robust satellite signal at 717.2 eV, could be assigned to Fe^{3+} [36–38], while the peaks located at 710.3 and 723.7 eV, together with a strong shakeup satellite at 731.8 eV, corresponded to Fe^{2+} state [37,38].

The UV–vis DRS spectra (Fig. S6a) revealed that the pure ZnO present only light absorbance in UV area with the wide band gap (E_g) around 3.24 eV as calculated from the plot of Kubelka-Munk function versus photon energy (see Fig. S6b), suggesting that ZnO could be excited only by UV lights due to its energy band gap. All the $\text{Au}_{1.0}\text{Fe}_{0.33}\text{-ZnO}$, $\text{Au}_{1.0}\text{-ZnO}$, and $\text{Fe}_{0.33}\text{-ZnO}$ exhibited similar light absorptions in

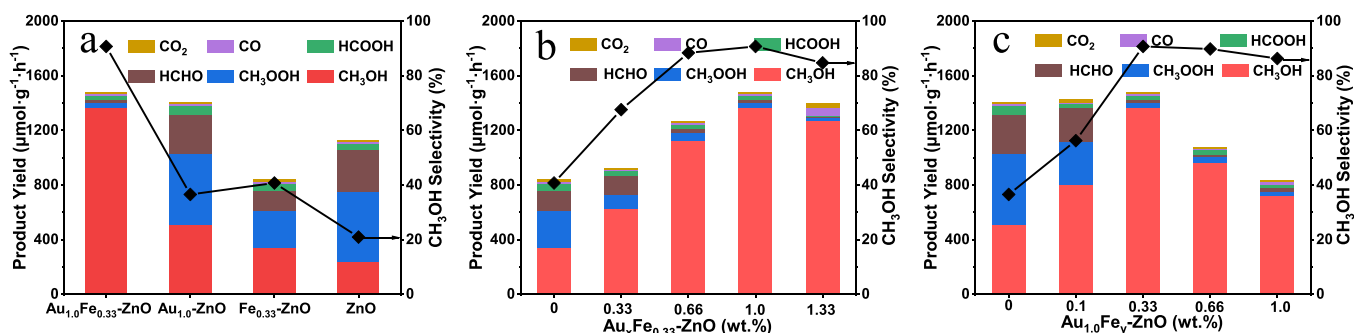


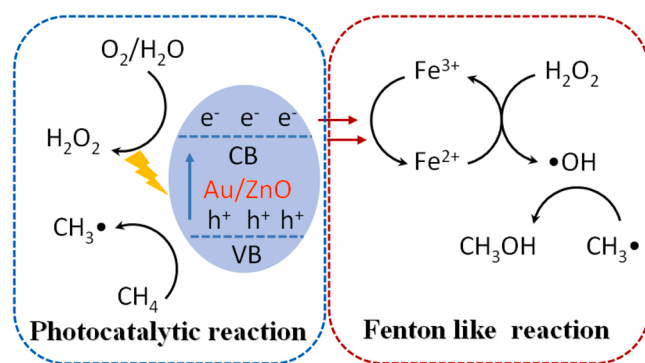
Fig. 2. Performances of different photocatalysts in CH_3OH oxidation by changing (a) photocatalysts, (b) the Au-content in $\text{Au}_x\text{Fe}_{0.33}\text{-ZnO}$, and (c) the Fe-content in $\text{Au}_{1.0}\text{Fe}_y\text{-ZnO}$. Reaction conditions: 40 mg catalyst, 20 mL H_2O , 2.0 bar O_2 , 18 bar CH_4 , 20°C reaction temperature, 1 h reaction period, stirring rate 500 rpm, 300 W Xe lamp irradiation.

UV area to pure ZnO, with the same E_g values. Those results demonstrated all the $\text{Au}_{1.0}\text{Fe}_{0.33}\text{-ZnO}$, $\text{Au}_{1.0}\text{-ZnO}$ and $\text{Fe}_{0.33}\text{-ZnO}$ were UV photocatalysts like ZnO. The photocurrent response curves obtained under Xe lamp irradiation (Fig. S7a) demonstrated that the pure ZnO exhibited very low photocurrent density. Loading Au, Fe, and AuFe gradually increased the photocurrent density. The PL spectra obtained under 348 nm excitation (Fig. S7b) indicated that depositing Au, Fe and AuFe caused a gradual decrease in density of the peak around 500 nm, implying the decrease in the photoelectron-hole recombination probability. Furthermore, the EIS spectra (Fig. S7c) revealed that the arc radius became smaller by loading Au onto ZnO, corresponding to the enhanced rate of electron transfer which could be attributed to the good electric conductivity of metallic Au. The rapid electron transfer could facilitate the separation of photoelectrons from holes, corresponding to the lower photoelectron-hole recombination. Therefore, because of the similar UV light harvesting ability in almost the same region, the $\text{Au}_{1.0}\text{-ZnO}$ and $\text{Fe}_{0.33}\text{-ZnO}$ exhibited stronger photocurrent density than the pure ZnO, mainly owing to the inhibition of photoelectron-hole recombination by facilitating electron transfer or constructing heterojunctions. The $\text{Au}_{1.0}\text{Fe}_{0.33}\text{-ZnO}$ exhibited the strongest photocurrent density owing to the synergetic effects from both Au and Fe species.

3.2. Catalytic performance

The photocatalytic CH_4 oxidation by gas O_2 was examined in a 100 mL autoclave with a quartz window for light irradiation (see the experimental details and the picture in the Supporting Information). Fig. 2a demonstrated that the pure ZnO, $\text{Au}_{1.0}\text{-ZnO}$, and $\text{Fe}_{0.33}\text{-ZnO}$ photocatalysts displayed poor CH_3OH selectivity and yield due to the rapid formation of HCHO and CH_3OOH during photocatalytic O_2 oxidation of CH_4 under present reaction conditions. However, photocatalytic CH_4 oxidation on the $\text{Au}_{1.0}\text{Fe}_{0.33}\text{-ZnO}$ resulted in the target CH_3OH . The main byproducts were CH_3OOH and HCHO, suggesting that cooperation between Au and Fe on the ZnO could remarkably promote CH_3OH production and efficiently inhibit either CH_3OOH or HCHO production. Only trace of HCOOH, CO, and CO_2 byproducts was detected. Both the CH_3OH selectivity and the CH_3OH yield increased with the increase of either the Au-content in $\text{Au}_x\text{Fe}_{0.33}\text{-ZnO}$ or the Fe-content in $\text{Au}_{1.0}\text{Fe}_y\text{-ZnO}$. The optimum catalyst was determined as $\text{Au}_{1.0}\text{Fe}_{0.33}\text{-ZnO}$, corresponding to 1.0 wt% Au and 0.33 wt% Fe on the ZnO. Further increase in the Au-content caused slightly decrease in both the CH_3OH selectivity and the CH_3OH yield (see Fig. 2b). Unlike Au, the further increase of Fe-content resulted in a rapid decrease in CH_3OH yield, but the CH_3OH selectivity remained almost constant (see Fig. 2c).

Because either the Au-content or the Fe-content had little effect on the morphology, the crystalline degree and structural parameters of $\text{Au}_x\text{Fe}_y\text{-ZnO}$, the change of the CH_3OH selectivity and yield could be mainly accounted by considering the coupled photocatalytic reactions and Fenton-like reactions. As briefly illustrated in Scheme 1, the ZnO



Scheme 1. Illustration of one-pot cascade photocatalytic reaction and Fenton-like reaction.

excited by UV-light irradiation to generate photoelectrons and holes. The photoelectrons reduced O_2 to produce H_2O_2 and the photo-induced holes activated CH_4 molecules to form $\bullet\text{CH}_3$ radicals. The Fe^{2+} species on ZnO activated H_2O_2 to form $\bullet\text{OH}$ radicals, followed by reacting with $\bullet\text{CH}_3$ to produce target product CH_3OH . The as-resulted Fe^{3+} species could be reduced into Fe^{2+} by photoelectrons, leading to the cycling Fenton-like reactions. Because the photo-induced holes also activated O_2 into $\text{O}_2\bullet$ radicals, which could directly react with $\bullet\text{CH}_3$ to form CH_3OOH and HCHO. In addition, the deep oxidation of CH_3OOH and HCHO by either the $\text{O}_2\bullet$ radicals or the photo-induced holes resulted in the formation of trace byproducts, including HCOOH, CO, and CO_2 . The pure ZnO displayed very activity in the photocatalytic production of H_2O_2 and activation of CH_4 molecules to $\bullet\text{CH}_3$. Meanwhile, it also displayed low selectivity to CH_3OH due to the low concentration of $\bullet\text{OH}$ radicals in comparison with the $\text{O}_2\bullet$ radicals since only trace H_2O_2 were present, and it was difficult to be activated into $\bullet\text{OH}$ radicals in the absence of Fe^{2+} species. Therefore, the ZnO exhibited very low CH_3OH yield during photocatalytic CH_4 oxidation. Depositing Au nanoparticles onto ZnO could significantly enhance the photocatalytic activity in generating H_2O_2 since metallic Au could act as a good electron conductivity for rapid electron transfer to inhibit photoelectron-hole recombination.

Meanwhile, the Au could also act as a co-catalyst to activate CH_4 molecules to form $\bullet\text{CH}_3$. Therefore, the $\text{Au}_{1.0}\text{-ZnO}$ exhibited a much higher CH_3OH yield than the pure ZnO. However, only a slight increase in the selectivity was observed on the $\text{Au}_{1.0}\text{-ZnO}$ since the H_2O_2 could not be efficiently activated into $\bullet\text{OH}$ radicals in the absence of Fe^{2+} species to react with $\bullet\text{CH}_3$ for producing CH_3OH . A lot of $\bullet\text{CH}_3$ could react with $\text{O}_2\bullet$ to produce CH_3OOH and HCHO as well as other byproducts by deep oxidation [30,32], leading to the poor selectivity to CH_3OH . Meanwhile, the $\text{Fe}_{0.33}\text{-ZnO}$ exhibited poor CH_3OH yield because of the insufficient photocatalytic activity in generating H_2O_2

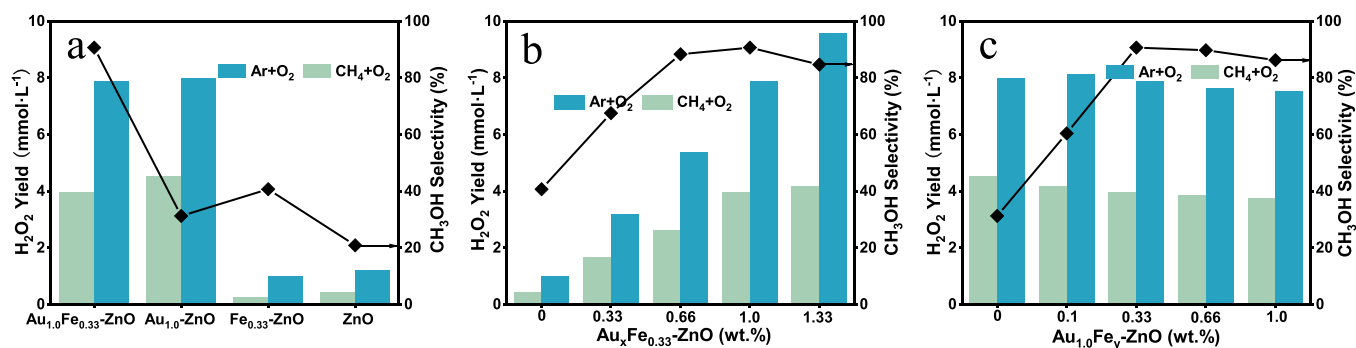


Fig. 3. Corresponding relationship of photocatalytic H₂O₂ generation and activation to the CH₃OH selectivity during CH₄ oxidation in Ar/O₂ or CH₄/O₂ systems by verifying (a) photocatalysts, (b) the Au-content in Au_xFe_{0.33}-ZnO, and (c) the Au-contents in Au_{1.0}Fe_y-ZnO. Reaction conditions are given in Fig. 2.

and •CH₃ due to the rapid photoelectron-hole recombination in the absence of Au. The Fe_{0.33}-ZnO also exhibited low selectivity to CH₃OH since no enough •OH radicals could be produced by Fe²⁺ species due to the very low content of H₂O₂. Therefore, a lot of •CH₃ could react with O₂• to produce CH₃OOH and HCHO, together with the deep oxidation by O₂• to produce HCOOH, CO, and CO₂ byproducts. The highest CH₃OH yield (1365 μmol·g⁻¹·h⁻¹) and selectivity (90.7%) were achieved on the Au_{1.0}Fe_{0.33}-ZnO, obviously owing to the cooperation between the Au-promoted ZnO photocatalytic reaction and Fe-started Fenton-like reaction. The increased Au-content on the Fe_{0.33}-ZnO resulted in the rapid formation of H₂O₂ and •CH₃ by photocatalytic reactions. The H₂O₂ could be in situ activated by Fe²⁺ to generate •OH radicals, followed by reacting with •CH₃ to produce the target product CH₃OH. However, at very high Au-content (1.0 wt%), the CH₃OH yield declined slightly due to the decreased selectivity to CH₃OH since the H₂O₂ could not be rapidly activated into •OH radicals. Excess •CH₃ could be oxidized by O₂• to produce CH₃OOH and HCHO, followed by deep oxidation on the Au catalyst to form a large amount of CO byproduct. Similarly, the increased Fe-content on the Au_{1.0}-ZnO also greatly enhanced CH₃OH yield since incorporating Fe oxides with ZnO could inhibit photoelectron-hole recombination by forming heterojunctions, leading to enhanced photocatalytic activity. Meanwhile, more Fe species could be used for activating H₂O₂ into •OH radicals, followed by reacting with •CH₃ to form CH₃OH, leading to increased CH₃OH selectivity. Further increase in Fe-content (0.33 wt%) would be harmful to the CH₃OH yield, obviously due to the decrease in activity since the CH₃OH selectivity remained almost unchanged. A possible explanation is the light shielding effect of Fe species on the ZnO photocatalyst at high Fe-content.

To understand the roles of Au and Fe species during selective photocatalytic oxidation of CH₄ with O₂, the corresponding relationship of H₂O₂ generation to the CH₃OH selectivity was investigated. As shown in

Fig. 3a, the ZnO and Fe_{0.33}-ZnO displayed very low and similar H₂O₂ yield, indicating that the Fe species deposited on ZnO played very limited role in promoting H₂O₂ formation. Although both the Au_{1.0}-ZnO and Au_{1.0}Fe_{0.33}-ZnO could produce a high concentration of H₂O₂, the Au_{1.0}-ZnO still exhibited much lower CH₃OH selectivity than the Au_{1.0}Fe_{0.33}-ZnO since the H₂O₂ could not efficiently activate into •OH radicals in the absence of Fe species, corresponding to the low consumption of H₂O₂ in the presence of CH₄. Thus, the excess •CH₃, which was also generated from photocatalytic reactions, could be oxidized by O₂• radicals to CH₃OOH, HCHO, and CO byproducts due to the deep oxidation. Fig. 3b revealed that the H₂O₂ yield increased linearly with the increasing Au-content in the Au_xFe_{0.33}-ZnO owing to the enhanced photocatalytic activity in producing both the H₂O₂ and the •CH₃. The maximum CH₃OH selectivity was obtained at an Au-content of 1.0 wt%. Further increase in the Au-content resulted in a slight decrease in the CH₃OH selectivity, though the H₂O₂ yield increased. This could be accounted by considering the limited Fe species, which could effectively activate the as-produced H₂O₂ at high concentration into •OH radicals, corresponding to the low consumption of H₂O₂ in the presence of CH₄. Thus, partial •CH₃ could react with O₂• radicals to produce CH₃OOH and HCHO as well as CO byproducts due to the deep oxidation. Fig. 3c demonstrated that, with the increased Fe-content in Au_{1.0}Fe_y-ZnO, the H₂O₂ yield generated from photocatalytic reactions remained almost constant. However, the CH₃OH selectivity first increased owing to the enhanced efficiency for activating H₂O₂ into •OH radicals by Fe species, corresponding to the improved consumption of H₂O₂ in the presence of CH₄. The maximum efficiency for activating H₂O₂ into •OH radicals was achieved at the Fe-content of 0.33 wt%. Further increasing of the Fe-content resulted in a decrease in CH₃OH selectivity due to the decreased H₂O₂ yield.

Fig. 4a demonstrated that, on the Au_{1.0}Fe_{0.33}-ZnO photocatalyst, increasing CH₄ pressure caused a rapid increase of CH₃OH yield owing

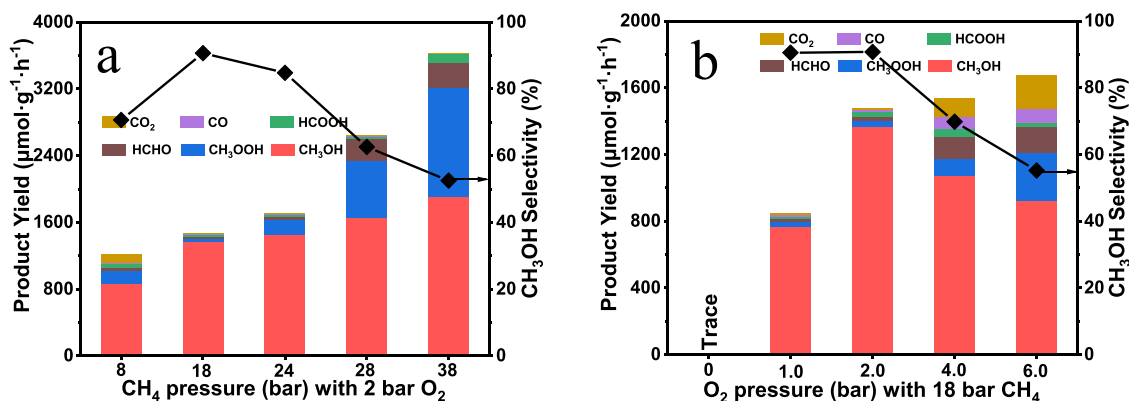


Fig. 4. Effects of (a) CH₄ and (b) O₂ partial pressure on the CH₃OH yield and selectivity during photocatalytic O₂ oxidation of CH₄ on Au_{1.0}Fe_{0.33}-ZnO. Other reaction conditions are given in Fig. 2.

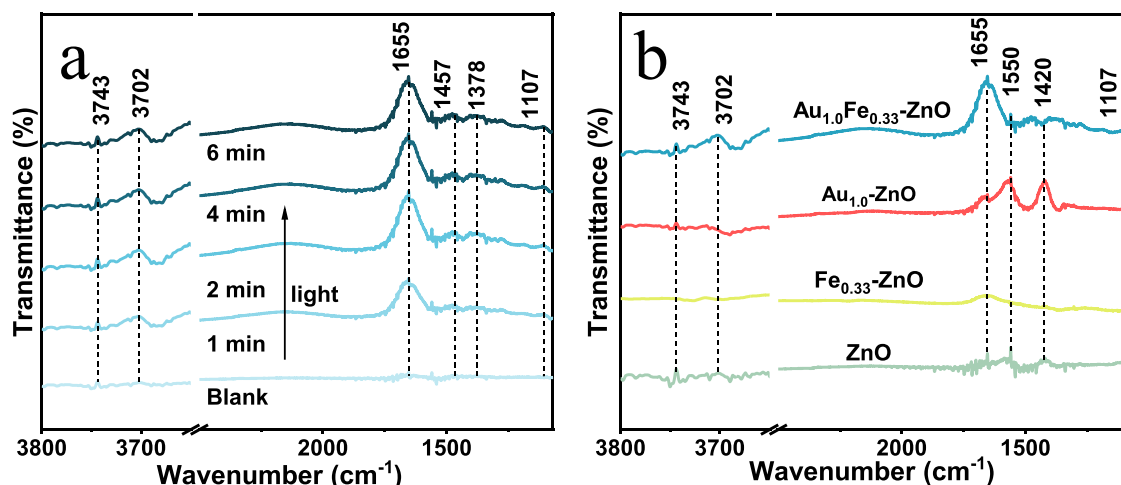


Fig. 5. In situ FT-IR spectra on (a) $\text{Au}_{1.0}\text{Fe}_{0.33}\text{-ZnO}$ with the increasing time of Xe lamp irradiation, (b) $\text{Au}_{1.0}\text{Fe}_{0.33}\text{-ZnO}$, $\text{Au}_{1.0}\text{-ZnO}$, $\text{Fe}_{0.33}\text{-ZnO}$, and ZnO after 6 min of Xe lamp irradiation.

to the increase in both the activity and the selectivity due to the enhanced production of $\bullet\text{CH}_3$ and the suppressed formation of CH_3OOH by product. However, a further increase in the CH_4 pressure above 18 bar caused an abrupt decrease in CH_3OH selectivity since excess $\bullet\text{CH}_3$ was produced, which could react with $\text{O}_2\bullet^-$ to produce CH_3OOH and HCHO byproducts. Fig. 4b confirmed that no products were detected in the absence of O_2 , suggesting that the CH_4 was only oxidized by molecular O_2 under present reaction conditions. The increase of O_2 pressure caused a rapid increase of CH_3OH yield, which could be mainly attributed to the enhanced activity owing to the rapid production of H_2O_2 into $\bullet\text{OH}$ radicals, which could also account for the high CH_3OH selectivity up to 90.7%. However, further increasing O_2 pressure above 2.0 bar resulted in an abrupt decrease in the CH_3OH selectivity due to the rapid formation of $\text{O}_2\bullet^-$ radicals, followed by reacting with $\bullet\text{CH}_3$ to produce CH_3OOH , HCHO , HCOOH , CO , and CO_2 byproducts due to the deep oxidation.

The influence of other factors on the efficiency of photocatalytic CH_4 oxidation on the $\text{Au}_{1.0}\text{Fe}_{0.33}\text{-ZnO}$ was also investigated (see Table S3). No products were detected when the reaction was performed under visible light irradiation or in the presence of H_2O_2 and O_2 without light irradiation. With the increase of Au nanoparticle size from 4.7 nm to 14.6 and 30.7 nm on the $\text{Au}_{1.0}\text{Fe}_{0.33}\text{-ZnO}$, the CH_3OH yield and selectivity decreased abruptly, suggesting that the enhanced Au nanoparticle size decreased the activity, which could be easily understood by considering the decreased number of Au active sites.

The influences of reaction time, reaction temperature, and the amount of photocatalyst on the performance of photocatalytic CH_4 oxidation over the $\text{Au}_{1.0}\text{Fe}_{0.33}\text{-ZnO}$ were also investigated (see Fig. S8). With the increase of reaction time to 60 from 20 min, the CH_3OH yield and the CH_3OH selectivity remained almost unchanged, obviously owing to the low CH_3OH yield and almost no over oxidation. This could be further confirmed that the CH_3OH yield per min was nearly the same from 0 to 40 min, but gradually decreased from 40 to 60 min. Further increase in the reaction time resulted in the abrupt decrease in the CH_3OH selectivity due to the deep oxidation to produce CH_3OOH , HCHO and CO_2 byproducts, corresponding to the rapid decrease in the CH_3OH yield per min, though that only slight decrease in the total CH_3OH yield was observed. Similarly, with the increase of the reaction temperature to 20°C , the CH_3OH yield increased owing to the enhanced reaction rate since the selectivity remained almost constant. Further increase in the reaction temperature resulted in a rapid decrease in the CH_3OH yield due to the rapid decrease in the CH_3OH selectivity since various byproducts like CH_3OOH , HCHO and CO_2 etc. appeared by over-oxidation. Interestingly, when the amount of photocatalyst increased

from 20 to 40 mg, the CH_3OH selectivity increased rapidly up to 90.7%, but the CH_3OH yield slightly decreased. A possible reason was that the increase of photocatalyst might shield the light irradiation efficiency, which slowed the photocatalytic CH_4 oxidation by O_2 but also retarded the deep oxidation reactions. Further increase in photocatalyst amount caused a significant decrease in both the CH_3OH yield and the CH_3OH selectivity, possibly due to the low photocatalytic reaction rate for CH_4 oxidation and the deep oxidation of CH_3OH by Fenton-like reactions.

3.3. Mechanism investigation

We further performed in situ FT-IR studies under light illumination to gain more insights into the photocatalytic oxidation process of CH_4 by O_2 . A mixture gas of CH_4/O_2 was bubbled through deionized water to bring the saturated water vapor into the reaction cell. Background spectra were obtained by flowing through the reactor cell with Ar at 160°C for 15 min, followed by passing mixed gas containing 15 mL/min CH_4 and 5 mL/min O_2 into the reaction system at 20°C for another 40 min without light irradiation. As shown in Fig. 5a, in comparison with the $\text{Au}_{1.0}\text{Fe}_{0.33}\text{-ZnO}$ before light irradiation, it displayed two new peaks at 3743 and 3702 cm^{-1} indicative of the hydroxyl group [39,40] and another three peaks at 1107, 1378, 1655 cm^{-1} characteristic of $\bullet\text{CH}_3\text{O}$, $\bullet\text{CH}_2\text{O}$, $\bullet\text{OH}_2$ [41,42], where the symbol \bullet refers to the radicals detected on the photocatalyst surface rather than the radicals present in the reaction which were marked with \bullet . The intensity of $\bullet\text{OH}_2$ peak increased gradually with increasing irradiation time, which could be attributed to the following reaction: $\bullet\text{OH} + \text{CH}_4 \rightarrow \bullet\text{OH}_2 + \bullet\text{CH}_3$ [43]. Fig. 5b shows the FT-IR spectra of different photocatalysts after light irradiation for 6 min. Different from that observed on the $\text{Au}_{1.0}\text{Fe}_{0.33}\text{-ZnO}$, a new peak at 1550 cm^{-1} was found on either the $\text{Au}_{1.0}\text{-ZnO}$ or the ZnO , corresponding to $\bullet\text{C-O}$, which had been proved to be a key intermediate for overoxidation of CH_4 [32]. Meanwhile, a strong peak at 1420 cm^{-1} indicative of $\bullet\text{CH}_3$ appeared, together with a weak peak at 1655 cm^{-1} characteristic of $\bullet\text{OH}_2$, indicating that photo-induced holes played a dominant role in generating $\bullet\text{CH}_3$ instead of $\bullet\text{OH}$ radicals. After loading Fe species on ZnO , the peak characteristic of $\bullet\text{CH}_3$ disappeared, which could be attributed to its reaction with $\bullet\text{OH}$ radicals.

The electron paramagnetic resonance (EPR) spectra (Fig. S9) displayed four-peak signals with a 1:2:2:1 line shape, which proved the presence of $\bullet\text{OH}$. As shown in Fig. S9a, the $\text{Au}_{1.0}\text{Fe}_{0.33}\text{-ZnO}$ exhibited low intensity of $\bullet\text{OH}$ signal in the presence of Ar. Since in the absence of O_2 , no H_2O_2 could be produced by photocatalytic reactions. So, the $\bullet\text{OH}$ radicals were mainly generated from H_2O oxidation by photo-induced

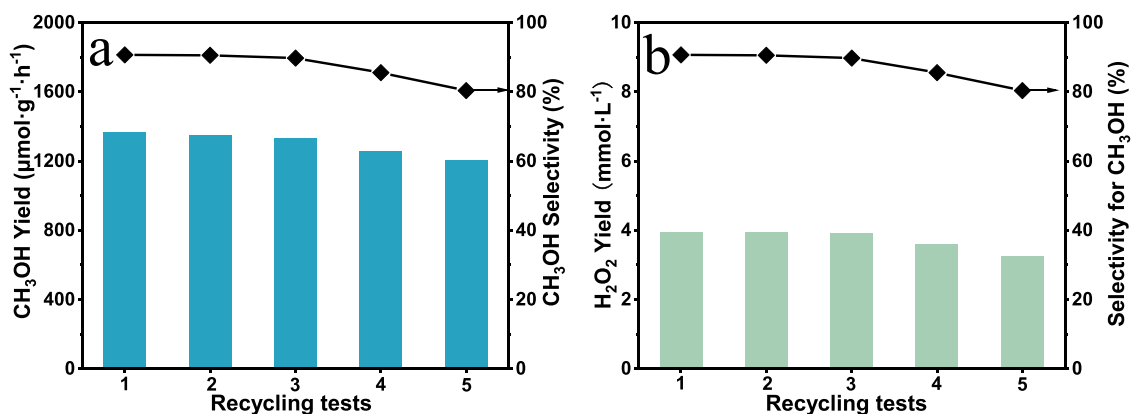


Fig. 6. (a) CH₃OH yield and (b) H₂O₂ yield during recycling tests of the Au_{1.0}Fe_{0.33}-ZnO photocatalyst. Reaction conditions are given in Fig. 2.

holes. By using O₂ instead of Ar, the Au_{1.0}Fe_{0.33}-ZnO exhibited much stronger intensity of •OH signal, obviously owing to the rapid generation of H₂O₂ from O₂ reduction by photocatalytic reactions, which subsequently transformed into •OH radicals through H₂O₂ activation by Fe²⁺ species. By using CH₄ atmosphere, even no significant •OH signals were observed, since the as-produced •OH could rapidly react with •CH₃ to produce CH₃OH product. We further compared the intensity of •OH signal over ZnO, Au_{1.0}-ZnO, Fe_{0.33}-ZnO, and Au_{1.0}Fe_{0.33}-ZnO in O₂ atmospheres under light irradiation for 6 min (see Fig. S9b). The Au_{1.0}Fe_{0.33}-ZnO and Au_{1.0}-ZnO exhibited a much stronger intensity of •OH signal than Fe_{0.33}-ZnO and ZnO, obviously owing to the presence of Au over catalysts. Furthermore, trapping experiments were also performed by using Na₂C₂O₄, K₂Cr₂O₇, salicylic acid, and para-quinone as scavengers for trapping h⁺, e⁻, •OH and O₂•⁻ during photocatalytic oxidation of CH₄ on Au_{1.0}Fe_{0.33}-ZnO (see Fig. S10). It could be seen that trapping h⁺ had little influence on the CH₃OH yield. However, trapping •OH could almost completely inhibit the CH₃OH production due to the absence of the reaction between •CH₃ and •OH. Similarly, trapping e⁻ and O₂•⁻ also completely inhibited the CH₃OH production since no H₂O₂ was generated from photocatalytic reactions, and thus no •OH radicals could be efficiently produced.

3.4. Durability

The Au_{1.0}Fe_{0.33}-ZnO photocatalyst exhibited both high activity and selectivity, leading to a high CH₃OH yield. Besides, the photocatalyst stability was also an essential criterion for the practical application. Fig. 6a and Fig. 6b show the CH₃OH and H₂O₂ yield during recycling tests of Au_{1.0}Fe_{0.33}-ZnO photocatalyst during selective oxidation of CH₄ to CH₃OH using O₂. Only a slight decrease in either the CH₃OH and H₂O₂ yield or the CH₃OH selectivity was found after 5 cycles, suggesting the excellent durability of the Au_{1.0}Fe_{0.33}-ZnO. The ICP analysis demonstrated the Au-content and Fe-content remained almost unchanged, indicating no significant Au and Fe were leached off from the ZnO support during the reactions owing to the strong interaction between the Au and the Fe species with the ZnO support. Meanwhile, it was confirmed that the Au_{1.0}Fe_{0.33}-ZnO, after being used repetitively for 5 cycles displayed almost the same XPS spectra, XRD patterns, and TEM images as those found in the original Au_{1.0}Fe_{0.33}-ZnO (Fig. S11), corresponding to the similar electronic states, crystal structure, Au_{1.0}Fe_{0.33}-ZnO morphology, Au nanoparticle size, and dispersion state. The slight decrease in the photocatalytic efficiency could be mainly attributed to the leaching of Au_{1.0}Fe_{0.33}-ZnO during the separating and washing process.

4. Conclusion

This work developed a bifunctional photocatalyst (AuFe-ZnO) by uniformly depositing Au nanoparticles and Fe species onto ZnO, which exhibited very high CH₃OH yield and selectivity during photocatalytic O₂ oxidation of CH₄ to CH₃OH under mild conditions. The Au promoted the photocatalytic activity of the ZnO, leading to the efficient production of H₂O₂ from O₂ and activation of CH₄ to •CH₃ radicals. Meanwhile, the Fe²⁺ activated H₂O₂ into •OH radicals, followed by reacting with •CH₃ to produce CH₃OH. The as-resulted Fe³⁺ could be reduced by photoelectrons, leading to the recycling Fenton-like reactions. The cascade photocatalytic Fenton-like reactions and synergistic effects of Au, Fe, and ZnO greatly enhanced the activity and selectivity, leading to the CH₃OH yield of 1365 μmol·g⁻¹·h⁻¹ with high CH₃OH selectivity of up to 90.7%. Meanwhile, the AuFe-ZnO also displayed excellent durability, showing good potential in industrial applications.

CRediT authorship contribution statement

Haoran Du: Data curation, Formal analysis, Investigation, Writing – original draft. **Xiuping Li:** Data curation, Formal analysis. **Zhiyang Cao:** Data curation, Formal analysis. **Shao Zhang:** Data curation, Formal analysis. **Wenzhao Yu:** Data curation, Formal analysis. **Fengyu Sun:** Data curation, Formal analysis. **Shengyao Wang:** Data curation, Formal analysis. **Jingjing Zhao:** Formal analysis, Review. **Jiaqi Wang:** Data curation. **Yuan Bai:** Formal analysis. **Juanjuan Yang:** Data curation, Formal analysis. **Ping Yang:** Data curation, Formal analysis. **Bo Jiang:** Data curation, Formal analysis, Writing – review & editing. **Hexing Li:** Conceptualization, Funding acquisition, Supervision, Writing – review & editing.

Declaration of Competing Interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

Data Availability

No data was used for the research described in the article.

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Appendix A. Supporting information

Supplementary data associated with this article can be found in the online version at [doi:10.1016/j.apcatb.2022.122291](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apcatb.2022.122291).

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